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ABSTRACT

A 1968 study by Warren W. Willingham of the accessibility of higher education in the United States was replicated in Georgia in 1976. Some significant methodological problems occurred in attempting complete replication. The Georgia study resulted in interpretations of accessibility for 1968 that differ from the Willingham study. It also revealed an improved condition of accessibility in 1976. Among the variables used in determining accessibility were tuition and fees, school selectivity, and geographic proximity. Some statistical charts and a bibliography are included. (MSE)

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ACCESSIBILITY OF COLLEGIATE EDUCATION IN GEORGIA

a report to the

Georgia Postsecondary Education Commission

Atlanta, Georgia

1977

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Georgia Postsecondary Education Commission
2970 Peachtree Road, N.W. Suite 620 -- (404) 233-5449
ATLANTA, GEORGIA 30305

GEORGE BUSBEE
Governor

W. ASBURY STEMBRIDGE
Chairman

This report was written by Mary Kay Murphy, Ph.D. student in Educational Administration, Georgia State University, during the Summer, 1977, under an internship of the Governor's Internship Program; and during the Fall, 1977, as a partial requirement of EAS 896, Postsecondary Education Seminar.

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MKM: Atlanta, Georgia
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ACCESSIBILITY OF COLLEGIATE EDUCATION IN GEORGIA

Georgia is a state rich in the history and in the diversity of access to collegiate education. For nearly 150 years, between 1801 and 1947, collegiate education in Georgia was a concern of the individual, his family, and the state. Financing and governance of collegiate education were carried on in a tradition of elitism. Universal attendance and free-access were not goals for collegiate education in the state during the first century and a half these opportunities were offered. During these years, Georgia was not alone among the states in viewing collegiate education as the privilege of a select few and the preserve of the academic and social elite.

Access to collegiate education, the provision of opportunity through which every individual may have entry to the highest available levels of education, has been an implicit factor in American political life since the founding of the Republic.[1] Unlike Europe where collegiate education was university education with clear and established standards open only to members of the governing class, collegiate education in America has been the highest level of education available. Through its first 200 years, collegiate education in America has evolved to mean increasingly higher levels of education to a greatly increasing number in the population.

The steady expansion of access to collegiate education in America from common school--a town academy in the 1700's--to a community college in the 1960's--brought about three significant changes in terms of accessibility: (a) it enlarged the scope of collegiate education to include programs not previously defined as being collegiate; (b) it changed requirements for entrance into collegiate education by opening it to all students regardless of previous programs or performance; and (c) it brought massive support to the expansion of collegiate education in the form of public funds.[2] These changes reflect America's continuing commitment to maintaining access for all to the highest available level of education.[3]

Chapter 1

HISTORY OF ACCESS TO COLLEGIATE EDUCATION IN GEORGIA

Georgia was one of the first states to provide access to collegiate education at public expense, in private institutions, to women, and to blacks. Access to collegiate education changed from attendance based on merit to access based on interest of the individual in collegiate education.

1795-1948: Meritocratic Access

The University of Georgia, founded in 1785, is the oldest chartered state university in the United States.[4] The University opened in 1801 and established many branches throughout the state during the following 175 years. In 1931, the Georgia General Assembly grouped all the branches under the supervision of a single governing board, the Board of Regents of the University Syste

Private collegiate education in Georgia dates back to 1831 with the opening of LaGrange College. Mercer University opened in 1833, to be followed by Oglethorpe University in 1835 and by Emory University in 1836.

Collegiate education for women was initiated in Georgia in 1836 at Wesleyan College, followed in 1878 by Brenau College, and in 1889 by Agnes Scott College.

Another aspect of diversity in collegiate education in Georgia was signaled with the opening of private institutions for black students following the War between the States. In 1865, Atlanta University was the first of a complex of black colleges to open in the capital city.

In 1867, Morehouse College opened to blacks, followed in 1869 by Clark College; in 1881 by Spelman College; and in 1885 by Morris Brown College. In 1917, Albany State College became a state-supported institution enrolling blacks at the junior college level. By 1932, the institution, known formerly as Georgia Normal and Agricultural College, became an initial unit of the University System of Georgia.[5]

Reflecting the need of students in an urban area to work while attending college, Georgia State University opened as an evening branch of the Georgia Institute of Technology in Atlanta in 1913.[6]

Up to 1947, collegiate education in Georgia--and in other states--was a matter which concerned limited numbers within the state. Among these were state legislators; members of the University System Board of Regents; administrators and trustees of

private institutions of higher education in the state; undergraduate students and their families; and state taxpayers who helped support the university system.

Access to collegiate education was traditional in nature and in scope. Limited numbers of the college-age population, 18 to 24, enrolled in undergraduate programs. They studied traditional academic subjects, with men entering studies of engineering, business, medicine, finance, and law, and with women studying to become teachers or nurses. The cost of collegiate education was paid for by the individual or by his family. Collegiate education was seen as an access route to employment, to career success, and to an upwardly mobile life.

1947-1957: Welfare Access

Following the end of World War II, the composition of undergraduate education was changed markedly. Returning veterans--many of whom would not have attended college without benefit of the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944--were responsible for nearly doubling college enrollment from 1940 to 1950. By 1947, one of every two undergraduate students was being funded by the G.I. Bill.[7] By supporting research at major universities with the objective of finding of finding a solution to end the war and by providing direct financial assistance for veterans to attend college, the Federal Government became a substantial supporter of higher education by the late 1940's.[8]

This trend of greater federal involvement in collegiate education was to become a well-established pattern of federal control of access in the three decates from 1947 to 1977, especially in

Georgia. Financial support by the federal government changed the previous pattern of individual autonomy and state direction, with social and intellectual access being determin ers of higher education attendance in Georgia.

Perhaps the clearest signal of federal involvement in collegiate education access in Georgia came from the content and the timing of the 1947 Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education. Also known as The Truman Report, this report changed the meaning of access in higher education and gave new direction to the federal government in implementing changes in access in each of the states.

The Truman Report proposed that all barriers to educational opportunity be immediately abolished so that public education at all levels would be equally accessible to all.[9] The Report further stated that colleges and universities could no longer serve only the intellectual elite but must serve every citizen, youth, and adult in both formal and informal education as far as their native capacities permit.[10] The Truman Report of access to higher education had new dimensions of a welfare commitment in its approach and conceptualization.

The Report recommended that each state establish a number of community colleges which would be low cost and geographically accessible.[11] Each institution was to meet the total post-high school needs of its community by providing terminal programs, transfer curricula for attendance at senior colleges, and adult education programs.

Georgia responded to this new definition of accessibility by

joining with 13 other Southern states in a regional compact to upgrade the quality of higher education, to avoid program duplication, to spend limited tax dollars on cooperative efforts in providing access, and to conduct research into the most pressing needs of higher education in the region. The compact of states was formed in 1948 under the title of Southern Regional Education Board. Atlanta became the headquarters of the 14-state regional research agency.

SREB's major effort was for the planning and establishment of regional educational facilities of higher education, including the acquisition, operation, and maintenance of educational schools and institutions to provide greater educational advantages for the benefit of citizens living in member states.[12] Professional, technological, scientific, literary, and other fields were part of the compact agreement.[13]

1958-1964: Manpower Access

In the late 1950's, following the federal government's concern over the Russian launching of Sputnik, Georgia's system of collegiate education was transformed with additional federal policy involvement in access to collegiate education. The National Defense Education Act of 1958 created a program of student loans and graduate fellowships which provided access to collegiate education for students who would enter disciplines related to the national interest--science, engineering, mathematics, foerign language, and, later, English.[14] The NDEA legislation had the impact of a manpower conceptualization of access to collegiate education.

The Executive and the Legislative branches of the federal

government are not the only forces outside the state which have shaped the meaning of access in Georgia's system of collegiate education. The Judician Branch of the federal government has had much influence over accessibility of higher education in the state.

In 1961, as an outgrowth of Brown v. Board of Education, the first black students enrolled at the previously all-white University of Georgia in Athens. As recently as July, 1977, under Adams v. Califano, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare set forth strict guidelines relating to accessibility of the state's predominantly white university system for black students. The Georgia Board of Regents has been given five years to dismantle the state's dual university system and to insure accessibility of black students at senior college, graduate, and professional levels.[15]

1965-1977: Universal Access

During the decare of the 1960's, access to collegiate education in Georgia took on a new dimension with yet other Executive and Legislative decisions at the federal level. In the mid-1960's, as part of President Johnson's Great Society program, a new federal goal of universal access to collegiate education emerged, replacing previous commitments of individuals and states to meritocratic access in collegiate education.

The Higher Education Act of 1965 provided the first federal legislation for student grant assistance to the "disadvantaged."[16] Universal access became synonymous with "equality of educational opportunity" in federal legislation, causing a drastic change in the concept of access to a compensatory conceptualization of access

at the state level.

Executive, Legislative, and Judicial reforms at the federal level mandated a change in access to collegiate education in Georgia. By the late 1960's and early 1970's, the Georgia General Assembly had taken two decisive steps to insure accessibility of undergraduate institutions to increasing numbers of the state's students.

The Georgia General Assembly appropriated funds for the construction and operation of several new public junior colleges opened between 1968 and 1976. These new junior colleges did much to address the Truman Report's concern that low-cost and geographically accessible institutions would be available to community students.

In addition, during its 1971 session, the Georgia General Assembly initiated a program to make private undergraduate programs more accessible to Georgia students attending private institutions in the state. This support program provides a $400 Tuition Equalization Grant which in effect reduces the out-of-pocket tuition costs and fees for each Georgia resident attending a private undergraduate institution in the state. The TEG program has done much to increase accessibility of Georgia private institutions to Georgia undergraduate residents.

Extending the federal government's interest in universal access to higher education, the 1972 Education Amendments to the Higher Education Act made a profound change in the concept of accessibility in Georgia's system of collegiate education. The landmark 1972 Education Amendments provided for a Basic Education Opportunity Grant program with a direct grant of up to $1,600 per year to low-income students. This pattern shifted federal

assistance for postsecondary education away from institutional aid and toward student aid as a major mechanism of federal support of "equality of educational opportunity."[17]

A comparison of levels of Federal support for higher education is illustrative of the recent impact of the federal government on changing the concept of access from meritocratic prior to the 1940's to compensatory in the 1970's.

In FY 1941, the federal government spent a total of a modest $15 million to support higher education. The total sum of $15 million supported research and development projects contracted for by the federal government with colleges and universities.[18] In FY 1978, in the form of grants to low income students alone, the federal government will spent $2.3 billion.[19]

ACCESSIBILITY OF COLLEGIATE EDUCATION IN GEORGIA

Through a tumultuous period of three decades--1947 to 1977--when the concept of accessibility of collegiate education has changed from meritocratic to universal in nature, there has been no state-initiated study of access to collegiate education in Georgia. Changes mandated by federal legislation, judicial decisions, and executive declaration have changed the nature of accessibility of collegiate education in Georgia in the last 30 years.

Public and private collegiate education in the state has had goals and purposes changed--from elitism to egalitarianism in access, from intellectual and academic pursuits to social and racial compensation for denial of universal access before 1947.

Changes of such a profound nature in Georgia have been alluded to in one national study of accessibility of higher education. That study was completed in 1970 as part of a national study of accessibility of 2,596 colleges and universities in the United States enrolling freshmen.

WARREN W. WILLINGHAM'S STUDY OF FREE-ACCESS HIGHER EDUCATION

Using Fall, 1968 data, Warren W. Willingham authored a study which was intended to give some quantitative indications of how accessible collegiate education in the United States was. The report, Free-Access Higher Education,[20] presented profiles of accessibility for each state. Two criteria, tuition and selectivity, were used to determine accessibility of 2,596 colleges. A free-access college in that study was one that "admits at least one-third of its freshmen from the bottom half of their high school class and charges no more than $400 in annual fees."[21]

By devising a five-point scale, Willingham assigned accessibility scores to colleges which enroll freshmen. The five accessibility levels included Open Door, level one; Nonselective, level two; Selective, level three; Very Selective, level four; and Most Selective, level five. Thirty percent of the colleges included in the study were assigned free-access scores of either Open Door or Nonselective level.

In addition to tuition and selectivity, Willingham considered the proportion of the population in proximity to a free-access college. Summary estimates by state, city, and race provided Willingham with primary data for his study. A commuting distance of 45 minutes' door-to-door time was used to determine free-access of the population to an institution of higher education.

There were three qualifications Willingham identified in relation to his study. He cautioned that accessibility to collegiate education is not a guarantee that the education provided will be relevant, of good quality, or utilized. Further, he was concerned that institutional discrimination distorts any estimate of accessibility and could not be controlled for in his study.

Finally, he pointed out that estimates in his study might prove quite unreliable in some geographic areas. He urged those who have planning responsibilities in local areas to use his study as a means of providing national benchmarks and as a stimulus for further study on a local level.[22]

Willingham defined accessibility to an institution as the effect of both cost and selectivity.[23] Cost included tuition and fees for local residents for the academic year 1968-69, as reported in standard references or by institutions. Institutions were assigned tuition "scores" from one to five, as indicated in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Tuition Scores Assigned to Colleges

Tuition Score	Tuition & Fees (1968-69)	Percent of median U.S. family income (1967)
1	$ 0-160	0.0-2.0%
2	161-400	2.1-5.0
3	401-800	5.1-10.0
4	801-1,600	10.1-20.0
5	1,600 and higher	20.1 and higher

Only tuition and fees were included by Willingham in determining college cost, for these are factors which remain constant among students. Other expenses vary, depending on the quality of life style and the habits of the individual. Five printed sources provided Fall, 1968, tuition and fees information for Willingham. No published source included either tuition or selectivity information for more than half of the 2.596 colleges reported in his study. Different sources sometimes provided different data. Conflicting information was resolved by referring to additional sources.

In determining selectivity, "percent in top half of high school class" was the primary criterion Willingham used. An equivalent statement of admissions policy by an institution was used as a secondary criterion when class rank was not available.

Willingham assigned the institutions a selectivity score of one to five, as indicated in Table 2.2. Six printed sources provided Fall, 1968 selectivity information for Willingham.

Table 2.2 Selectivity Scores Assigned to Colleges

Selectivity score	Percent in top half of high school class (primary criterion)	Admissions policy (secondary criterion)
1 - Open door	0 - 49%	Accepts all high school graduates
2 - Nonselective	50 - 69	Accepts top 75% C average
3 - Selective	70 - 84	Accepts top 50% C+ average
4 - Very selective	85 - 94	Accepts top third B average
5 - Most selective	95 +	Very competitive

By combining a multiple cutoff procedure, Willingham assigned to the institutions an accessibility score equal to the higher of the two five-point scores--tuition or selectivity. When data on selectivity or tuition were not available for approximately seven percent of the colleges, direct calls were placed to the admissions office of those colleges. Excluded from the free-access category of colleges studied were those with heavy religious emphasis or those with curriculum restricted to a single trade or discipline. Those colleges which admitted students of

one sex only were sometimes excluded from free-access categorization, but very few colleges were classed as selective for that reason alone.

In order to display his findings, Willingham applied the criterion of proximity of the institutions to populations as having special relevance of access to higher education. His method was to determine commuting time of 45 minutes door-to-door based on congestion or population density, as in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Commuting Distances Assumed for Areas of Different Populations

One-way Commuting Mileage	Type of Area (population)
2½	Large central city, metropolitan area more than 1 million
5	Suburban area, metropolitan area more than 1 million
5	Metropolitan area, 500,000-1,000,000
10	Metropolitan area, 250,000-499,000
15	Metropolitan area, 50,000-249,000
20	Town, 10,000-49,000
25	Rural area and town, less than 10,000

The population covered by free-access colleges was estimated by political subdivisions--typically counties, census tracts, or sometimes congressional districts. Estimates were based on 1960 census data, even though cost and other data used were for 1968-69.

Willingham judged that changes in population were "a trivial source of variation in accessibility estimates."[24]

Institutions included in Willingham's study were those listed in the U. S. Office of Education's Opening Fall Enrollment of 1968, including all institutions which were accredited, which were approved by a state education agency, or which had their credits accepted by three accredited institutions. Willingham omitted from the study institutions which did not enroll freshmen. Included in the study as separate institutions were branches of a parent college serving as alternate locations for students and affecting the accessibility of a system. All recognized institutions which admitted undergraduates in 1968 were included in the 2,596 colleges in Willingham's study.

Free-access colleges, or those assigned either a Level One or a Level Two rating, were a primary focus of Willingham's study, as in Table 2.4. Distinction between Level Two and Level Three institutions was a significant break in categorization, for beyond Level Three institutions were determined to be inaccessible based on being either too costly, too selective, or both. Willingham found only one percent of all private institutions to be free-access institutions. He found 60 percent of all public institutions to be free-access, making the concept of a free-access institution "almost exclusively a public phenomenon."[25]

Table 2.4 Number of Various Types of Institutions at Each Accessibility Level*

	Number at each accessibility level					Total colleges
	1	2	3	4	5	
Public two-year	262	332	34	13	1	642
Public four-year	8	127	134	90	74	433
Branches	10	33	104	7	5	159
All Private	2	15	117	914	314	1,362
Total	282	507	389	1,024	394	2,596

*includes 50 states and District of Columbia

WILLINGHAM'S CONCLUSIONS REGARDING FREE-ACCESS IN GEORGIA

In the fall of 1968, 14 of Georgia's 56 higher education institutions enrolling freshmen were identified as being free-access institutions according to the 1970 national study. (Willingham did not identify the institutions by name.). Of the 14, 11 were public two-year institutions; one was a public four-year college; one, a public four-year branch; and one, a private institution. Georgia institutions were assigned accessibility scores as in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5 Number of Recognized Colleges at Different Levels of Accessibility in Georgia (Fall 1968)

Type of college	Level of accessibility: Free-access 1	Free-access 2	Less-accessible 3	Less-accessible 4	Less-accessible 5	Total colleges
Public two-year	0	11	0	1	0	12
Public four-year	0	0	9	2	3	15
Branches	0	1	0	0	0	1
All Private	0	14	4	17	6	28
Total colleges	0	14	13	20	9	56

The national study reported selectivity at nine inexpensive public four-year institutions in Georgia to be a factor in reducing their accessibility to Georgia citizens. The small size of those institutions and their location in less populous areas made the question of their accessibility a moot point according to the 1970 report.

Observations regarding the accessibility of higher education in Georgia in 1968 were as follows:

1. About three Georgians in 10 lived within commuting distance of a non-selective inexpensive college, as indicated in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6 Percentage of Different Populations within Commuting Distance of a Free-Access College in Georgia (Fall 1968)

Type of community	Population in thousands	Percent within commuting distance		
		White	Black	Total
Metropolitan areas (over 1 million)				
Central city	487	18	4	13
Fringe	530	35	29	34
Other metropolitan areas	797	49	49	49
Counties over 20,000	977	29	21	27
Counties under 20,000	1,144	27	19	24
Total state	3,935	33	24	30

2. Several metropolitan areas in the state lacked readily accessible collegiate education. Atlanta had a major problem with accessibility, for in 1968 it had no free-access institutions within its city limits.

3. A relatively smaller number of additional colleges appropriately placed at that time could substantially increase the proportion of the state's population within commuting distance of a free-access institution, as indicated in Table 2.7.

Table 2.7 Estimate of Additional Colleges Required To Put Specified Percentages of the Population of Georgia within Commuting Distance of a Free-Access College

	As of Fall 1968	Hypothetical Additional Colleges				
Number of free-access colleges	14	6*	3	5	9	9
Cumulative percent of population within commuting distance	30%	51%	60%	69%	79%	90%
Average population within commuting distance of each college (in thousands)	84	138*	113	75	45	45

* Figures in this line are not cumulative. Each refers to an independent set of additional colleges.

GEORGIA POSTSECONDARY EDUCATION COMMISSION'S STUDY OF ACCESSIBILITY, 1968 AND 1976

Background

In 1975, consultants from the Center for the Study of Higher Education in Ann Arbor, Michigan, recommended that the Georgia Postsecondary Education Commission replicate Warren W. Willingham's study of accessibility to measure the changes in higher education occurring in Georgia since 1970.[26] On March 31, 1976, the Commission voted to accept the consultants' recommendations to conduct an accessibility study for Georgia.[27] The Commission suggested updating the 1970 study for Georgia to reinvestigate the concept of accessibility which ranked the state fortieth and found only 30 percent of the residents within commuting distance

of a free-access college.[28]

The Georgia Postsecondary Education Commission has, as its major responsibility, long- and short-range planning of higher education in the State. Since 1974 when it was established by Executive Order of the Governor of Georgia, the Commission has had a commitment to building a planning process of people, relationships, and sound information to support effective and practical decision-making. This planning process is an ongoing process, the product of which has been and will continue to be a series of planning documents.[29] It is a process where studies play the role of raising planning questions rather than arriving at policy conclusions.[30]

Objectives

In commiting to the replication of Warren W. Willingham's study of higher education, the Georgia Postsecondary Education Commission had the following objectives:

1. To measure the changes in accessibility which have occurred in Georgia between 1968 and 1976 related to tuition and fees, selectivity, and geographic proximity.
2. To determine barriers which serve to limit accessibility of higher education in Georgia and to identify means for overcoming these barriers.
3. To identify new groups seeking access to higher education in Georgia and to raise planning questions related to accessibility for these groups.

4. To consider unresolved issues relating to accessibility of collegiate and vocational education in Georgia.
5. To suggest alternatives to constructing new buildings and campuses while seeking to insure access to programs.
6. To identify areas for further research related to accessibility of postsecondary education in Georgia.
7. To suggest continued redefinition of access to higher education in terms of future social changes, economic conditions, and educational imperatives.

Limitations

There are three major limitations in the Georgia Postsecondary Education Commission's effort to replicate the 1970 study. These include:

1. This study is a replication of only the tuition and fees aspects of the 1968 data in the national study, not the selectivity aspect. The Commission study could not control for the variables of changed social, educational, and economic conditions between 1968 and 1976. Selectivity information widely available in the public sector in 1968 was not available for 1976. Nor were selectivity data used in 1968 available in 1977, the period of the Commission's study. As

Georgia institutions enrolling freshmen have been forced to be less selective in admitting students, institutional openness about "percent of students in top half of high school class" and mean Scholastic Aptitude Test scores of entering freshmen has been reduced. Changes of such a significant nature made it impossible to replicate 1968 selectivity aspects for 1976.

2. The goal for the Commission study of accessibility was no a determination of location and numbers of new free-access institutions needed in the state. This was a major objective of the 1968 data display.
3. The Commission definition of access in higher education includes criteria related to social changes, economic factors, and historical imperatives taking place between 1968 and 1976. Thus, the Georgia Postsecondary Education Commission's definition of access is different, broader, and more encompassing than the 1970 definition. See Chapter 3 for an expanded definition and discussion of access in the Commission study.

Methodology

At the direction of the consultants from the Center for the Study of Higher Education in Ann Arbor, Michigan, and at the direction of its Commission members, the Georgia Postsecondary Education Commission attempted to replicate the Georgia portion of Warren W. Willingham's Free-Access Higher Education study. Several methodological problems, unforseen by the consultants, were encountered in the Commission's efforts to completely replicate use of 1968 data to determine accessibility of higher education in Georgia.

There were eight major methodological procedures carried out in the Commission study. Where they differ from the national study's methodology, an explanation is given. The major methodologies of the study are as follows:

1. The national study used five printed sources for 1968 tuition and fees information and six printed sources for selectivity information. Raw data for Georgia institutions related to 1968 tuition and selectivity scores were not included in Free-Access Higher Education. On July 19, 1977, the author of this study spoke long-distance to Dr. Willingham in his New York office requesting use of his 1968 raw data on Georgia institutions. Dr. Willingham said the raw data no longer exist.

2. The national study determined 93 percent of his tuition and fees and selectivity information from printed sources. Only seven percent of the institutional information came from direct calls to directors of admissions when printed information was not available. For its state-level study, the Commission placed direct telephone calls to 100 percent of the Georgia institutions enrolling freshmen to determine 1968 and 1976 tuition and fees and selectivity information.
3. The national study reported tuition and fees costs in the same method for public institutions as for private institutions. Because of a Tuition Equalization Grant program instituted by the Georgia General Assembly in 1971, the Commission information on tuition and fees for private institutions in Georgia in 1976 reports a total of $400 less than the total charged to out-of-state students attending these private institutions. This policy decision by the Georgia General Assembly has had the result of establishing two tuition rates at private undergraduate institutions in the state--one for residents and one for non-residents. Such a dual tuition policy has been in operation at Georgia's public institutions

for decades. The TEG of $400 per Georgia student results in a reduction of actual out-of-pocket expenses for tuition and fees for each year of undergraduate study by students who are residents of Georgia.

4. The national study used the 1967 Percent of Median U. S. Family Income to determine tuition and fees ranges and cutoff points in his five scores assigned for 1968 tuition cost data. The Commission study used the 1975 Percent of Median Family Income in the South applied in the proportion of ranges to determine tuition ranges and cutoff points for the Georgia 1976 tuition cost data.

5. The national study collected selectivity data for 1968, a year when there was much openness on the part of institutions about freshmen enrolled from "top percent of high school class." The Commission encountered no such climate of openness eight years later, even though 100 percent of Georgia's institutions enrolling freshmen were contacted by telephone to determine selectivity of admissions policies. Thus, the Commission eliminated the selectivity factor from its study for two reasons:

a. Institutions in 1976 either would not share information about "percent of freshmen enrolled from top half of high school class" or institutions used that factor as only one of five or six criteria to determine admission or non-admission of freshmen.

b. The Commission agrees with Henry S. Dyer's criticism of using selectivity as outlined in publications which rate institutions as "very selective" or "extremely selective" because "it is not known how well a different group of raters, working independently on the same set of categories, would agree in their categorization of the 2,900 - plus colleges of the United States."[31]

6. The national study used commuting time of 45 minutes door-to-door based on congestion or population density to determine accessibility of institutions in Georgia. Census data from 1960 were used to determine population composition within political subdivisions. The Commission study used 1970 census data to plot radii around 26 free-access Georgia institutions for 1968, and 1975 census estimates to plot radii around 39 free-access Georgia institutions for 1976.[32] In using 1970 census

data to determine population composition for 1968 free-access institutions, the Commission brought the institutional and population data eight years closer than the national study allowed. No attempt was made in the Commission study to determine percent of racial compositions residing within population areas as was Willingham's method. However, the national study's commuting mileage criteria, as a function of population, were used. (Refer to Table 2.3 above.)

7. The Commission study does not address itself to determining the racial composition of students within population densities attending the state's undergraduate institutions, nor does the study identify the percentage of college-age youth or commuting distance students served in 1976 by Georgia undergraduate institutions.

8. The national study identified 14 free-access Georgia colleges in 1968 using cost and selectivity to determine accessibility. The Commission study, using tuition and fees data only, found 27 free-access Georgia colleges in 1968 and 40 in 1976. The national found that 14 free-access institutions would serve 30 percent of the commuting population in Georgia. In 1968, 28 institutions would have served 69 percent of the commuting population; 37 institutions would have served 79 percent; and 46 would have served 90 percent.

The Commission study found that with 27 free-access institutions in 1968, the state was much closer to 69 percent coverage of commuting population than to 30 percent the national study claimed. In addition, with 39 free-access institutions in 1976, the state met nearly 79 percent of the national study's commuting population needs for 1968.

Discussion

Warren W. Willingham pointed out in Free-Access Higher Education that estimates in his study might prove quite unreliable in some geographic areas.[33] He urged those who have planning responsibilities in local areas to use his study as a means of providing national benchmarks and as a stimulus for further study on a local level. Willingham's framework proved to be a helpful stimulus to the Georgia Postsecondary Education Commission in evaluating the state's public and private higher education resources in terms of accessibility.

After applying the parts of Willingham's methodology which could be applied to a state-level study of accessibility, the Commission study has resulted in interpretations of accessibility for 1968 which differ from the national study. Further, the Commission study reveals a changed and improved condition of accessibility for the state in 1976.

Thus, the Commission study represents the efforts of state-level planners who are more familiar with local variables than are those at a national level. Further, although the results of the Commission study are at variance with the results of the national study, this is an expected consequence, as the national study pointed out.

Access and Tuition and Fees

In 1968, the national study identified only 14 free-access institutions in Georgia, with 13 of the total being public institutions. He found no free-access institutions in the city limits of Atlanta or in other metropolitan areas of the state.

Using tuition and fees data for 1968 and for 1976, the Commission study found 27 free-access institutions in Georgia in 1968 and 40 free-aceess institutions in 1976. Table 2.8 displays tuition scores assigned to five selectivity levels. Open door and Nonselective levels constitute the free-access institutions.

Two major public policy decisions on the part of the Georgia General Assembly account for the increase of 13 institutions between 1968 and 1976 being assigned free-access status. Seven new public junior colleges, two in the Atlanta area, opened during this period. In addition, during its 1971 session, the

Table 2.8

Tuition Scores Assigned to Georgia Institutions which Enroll Freshmen 1968-69 and 1976*

		1968-69			1976-77	
Selectivity Level	Type of Institution	Tuition Range	Number of Colleges	% of Total	Tuition Range	Number of Colleges
Open Door	Local College	$0-160	1	100	$0-244	1
Total			1	100		1
Non-Selective	Public Universities	$161-400	4	15	$243-611	4
	Public Senior Colleges		13	50		13
	Public Junior Colleges		9	35		16
	Private Senior Colleges		0			6
Total			26	100		39
Selective	Local College	$401-800	1	10	$612-1,224	1
	Private Senior Colleges		5	45		6
	Private Junior Colleges		5	45		4
Total			11	100		11
Very Selective	Private Universities	$801-1,600	2	12	$1,225-2,447	3
	Private Senior Colleges		11	69		8
	Private Junior Colleges		3	19		1
Total			16	100		12
Most Selective	Private Universities	$1,601 and	2	67	$2,448 and	1
	Private Senior Colleges	higher	1	33	higher	0
Total			3	100		1

*Add $400 per year to Tuition and Fees in 1976-77 for private institutions to determine charge before Tuition Equalization Grants (TEG) are deducted for Georgia residents.

Georgia General Assembly instituted a program of tuition support for Georgia undergraduate students attending private institutions in the state. A total of $400 per academic year is awarded to each Georgia resident attending private undergraduate institutions under the Tuition Equalization Grant program. With a reduction of $400 per year in out-of-pocket expenses for private undergraduate tuition and fees, these institutions have become more accessible to Georgia students over this eight-year period.

Table 2.9 reports a 50 percent increase in free-access institutions in Georgia between 1968 and 1976. Selective institutions showed no change. Very Selective institutions decreased by 25 percent. Most Selective institutions decreased by 67 percent. The most significant levels of change were expressed by two measures--an increase of 13 free-access institutions and a decrease of 13 very selective and most selective institutions.

In terms of tuition and fees, public institutions provide the greatest access in the State. But, contrary to the national study's findings, public junior colleges are not the only source of accessibility in State-supported institutions. Table 2.10 identifies 13 public senior colleges in both 1968 and in 1976. In addition, four public universities--including a medical school,

TABLE 2.9

Summary of Tuition Scores Assigned to Georgia Institutions
Which Enroll Freshmen

1968 and 1976

Selectivity Level	Number of Institutions 1968	Percent Total	1976	Percent Total	Percent change
Level 1 - Open Door	1	2	1	2	0
Level 2 - Nonselective	26	46	39	61	+50
Level 3 - Selective	11	19.	11	17	0
Level 4 - Very Selective	16	28	12	18	-25
Level 5 - Most Selective	3	5	1	2	-67
	n=57	100	n=64	100	+12

Table 2.10

Selectivity Level by Type of Institution in Georgia Which Enrolls Freshmen by Tuition and Fees
1968 and 1976

	ACCESSIBLE						NON-ACCESSIBLE			
	Open Door		Non-Selective		Selective		Very Selective		Most Selective	
Type of Institution	1968	1976	1968	1976	1968	1976	1968	1976	1968	1976
Public Junior Colleges			9	16						
Public Senior Colleges			13	13						
Local Colleges	1	1			1	1				
Public Universities			4	4						
Private Junior Colleges					5	4	3	1		
Private Senior Colleges			0	6	5	6	11	8	1	0
Private Universities							2	3	2	1

an urban university and an engineering university in Atlanta, and the state's major university in Athens--had non-selective tuition and fees costs in 1968 and in 1976. Six private senior colleges had non-selective tuitions and fees in 1976. The increase in seven Nons elective public junior colleges between 1968 and 1976 resulted from the opening of seven new junior colleges in the University System of Georgia.

Tuition Equalization Grants accounted for the major increase in access to the private collegiate sector. During the eight year period, private junior colleges became less selective as did private universities.

Using 1968 data, Willingham found that Georgia's 14 free-access institutions served only 30 percent of the commuting population of the state, In 1968, 28 institutions would have served 69 percent of the commuting population; 37 institutions would have served 79 percent; and 46 would have served 90 percent.

Table 2.11 of the Commission study identifies 27 free-access institutions in the state in 1968 and 40 in 1976. With 27 free-access institutions in 1968, the state was much closer to 69 percent coverage of the commuting population than in the 30 percent Willingham identified. In addition, with 40 free-access institutions in 1976, the state met nearly 79 percent of Willingham's commuting population needs for 1968.

Table 2.11

Number of Recognized Colleges at Different Levels of Accessibility in Georgia (Fall 1968 and Fall 1976) by Tuition and Fees

	Level of Accessibility											
	Free Access						Less Accessible				Total	
	1		2		3		4		5		Colleges	
Type of College	1968	1976	1968	1976	1968	1976	1968	1976	1968	1976	1968	1976
Local College	1	1			1	1					2	2
Public Two-Year			9	16							9	16
Public Four-Year			17	17							17	17
Private Two-Year					5	4	3	1			8	5
Private Four-Year			0	6	5	6	13	11	3	1	21	24
Total Colleges	1	1	26	39	11	11	16	12	3	1	57	64

Table 2.12 identifies the ranges of tuition and fees within the five selectivity levels for 1968 and for 1976. These ranges and cutoff points between levels assume no constant percent of increase in tuition and fees related to the cost of living index. Further, the tuition ranges for 1976 assume the same percent of distribution within the levels as did Willingham in 1968.

When increases in tuition and fees between 1968 and 1976 are examined, Georgia institutions enrolling freshmen are shown to have increased their costs at different rates. As Table 2.13 points out, the overall increase in tuition and fees at Georgia public institutions enrolling freshmen was 53 percent from 1968 to 1976. For local colleges, the increase was 72 percent. For out-of-state students at private institutions, the increase was 72 percent. For Georgia residents, as a result of the Tuition Equalization Grant program reducing tuition $400 a year at private institutions, the percent of increase was only 34 percent.

However, within public and private sectors, the rate of tuition increase was not constant at all levels of institutions. As Table 2.14 demonstrates, tuition and fees increased 67 percent between 1968 and 1976 at public universities; 52 percent at public senior colleges; and 35 percent at public junior colleges. Local colleges experienced a 66 percent increase in tuition and fees.

Table 2.12

TUITION SCORES ASSIGNED TO GEORGIA COLLEGES

Tuition Score	Number of Colleges	Tuition & Fees 1968-69	Percent of Median U.S. Family Income for 1967	Number of Colleges	Tuition & Fees 1976-77	Tuition of 1975 Median Family Income for South
1	1	$ 0-160	0.0 - 2.0	1	$ 0-244	0.0 - 2.0
2	26	161-400	2.1 - 5.0	39	243-611	2.1 - 5.0
3	11	401-800	5.1 - 10.0	11	612-1224	5.1 - 10.0
4	16	801-1600	10.1 - 20.0	12	1225-2447	10.1 - 20.0
5	3	1601 and higher	20.1 and higher	1	2448 and higher	20.1 and higher
Total	N=57			N=64		

Note: Ranges within each tuition level for 1968-69 were determined by Warren W. Willingham in Free Access to Higher Education, p. 13, based on percent of Median Family Income in 1967 for the United States. In replicating Dr. Willingham's study, the 1968-69 ranges were applied to Georgia institutions enrolling freshmen in the same increments which were used by Willingham. The 1976-77 ranges were determined by applying the same percent increments to the 1975 Median Family Income for the South, $12,236.

Table 2.13

Percent of Increase
in Tuition and Fees
By Types of Georgia Institutions Enrolling
Freshmen

1968 and 1976

TYPE OF INSTITUTION	PERCENT CHANGE WITHOUT TEG*	PERCENT CHANGE WITH TEG**
Public	+ 53	--
Local	+ 72	--
Private	+ 72	+ 34

* Tuition Equalization Grants of $400 per year to Georgia resident undergraduates are applied toward total tuition and fees in private institutions only. This total does not account for deduction of TEG.

** TEG of $400 has been deducted.

Table 2.14

Varying Rates of Increase
in Tuition and Fees
By Types of Georgia Institutions Enrolling
Freshmen
1968 and 1976

TYPES OF INSTITUTION	MEAN TUITION AND FEES 1968	MEAN TUITION AND FEES 1976	PERCENT CHANGE WITHOUT TEG* 1968-76	MEAN TUITION AND FEES-- WITHOUT TEG 1976	PERCENT CHANGE WITH TEG** 1968-76
Public Universities	347	581	+67	--	--
Public Senior Colleges	306	464	+52	--	--
Public Junior Colleges	247	334	+35	--	--
Local Colleges	397	660	+66	--	--
Private Universities	1423	2482	+74	2082	+46
Private Senior Colleges	984	1766	+79	1366	+39
Private Junior Colleges	751	1195	+59	795	+ 6

* Tuition Equalization Grants of $400 per year to Georgia resident undergraduates are applied toward total tuition and fees in private institutions only. This total does not account for deduction of TEG.

** TEG of $400 has been deducted.

At private institutions in Georgia, out-of-state students experienced a 74 percent increase in tuition and fees overall; private senior college students experienced a 79 percent increase; and private junior college students experienced a 59 percent increase.

Tuition Equalization Grants for Georgia undergraduates attending private institutions reduced the increase in tuitions and fees at private universities to 46 percent; at private senior colleges to 39 percent; and at private junior colleges to 6 percent.

Access and Selectivity

The Georgia Postsecondary Education Commission encountered two major problems in its efforts to replicate the national free-access study for Georgia. The first was a series of methodological problems; the second was an inability to control for the variables of changed social, educational, and economic conditions between 1968 and 1976. The Commission study replicates the Willingham study in terms which are replicatable in 1977. As as been stated earlier in this study, a major limitation of the Commission study is in the area of selectivity. This study does not replicate the national effort in that area.

Access and Geographic Proximity

One of the national study's major objectives in plotting geographic proximity in free-access institutions for Georgia was to identify areas with limited or no free-access institutions to serve as a basis for opening more free-access colleges. The Commission study takes place eight years after the national study. Data pointed to a need for more free-access institutions. In the interim, seven new public junior colleges have been opened and Tuition Equalization Grants have made private institutions more

accessible for Georgia undergraduates.

Figure A displays the national study's commuting areas for 14 free-access colleges for 1968. Figure B displays the Commission's version of the 1968 situation, in terms of commuting areas for the 27 free-access colleges for 1968. Several metropolitan and urban areas are accessible in the national study using 1970 census data, including Savannah, Augusta, Columbus, and Atlanta. These areas were not included as free-access institutions using the national study's 1968 data and 1960 census information.

Using the national study's standards to compute commuting distance, the Commission study of accessibility of free-access institutions identified 40 in Georgia, using 1976 data and 1979 census estimates. Figure C contrasts geographic accessibility in the state for 1976 and displays the change in accessibility which the addition of seven public junior colleges and Tuition Equalization Grants for private undergraduate residents of Georgia have made.

But maps with circles, plotted as they were on estimates rather than on data, should be used with extreme caution. The various tables both the national study's and the Commission's, display data which are more information than are plotted estimates on a map.

The mathematical calculation of access is closer to certainty than map circles based on intuition. As the Commission study is being conducted, the variable of increased costs and limited quantities of gasoline make commitment to commuting 45 minutes door-to-door an elusive variable. At what speed will the student commute? In what mode car? Alone or in a carpool? Will gasoline be available and affordable? Such changes in economics and national priorities make for limited value in depending on proximity dimensions other than those discussed in this section.

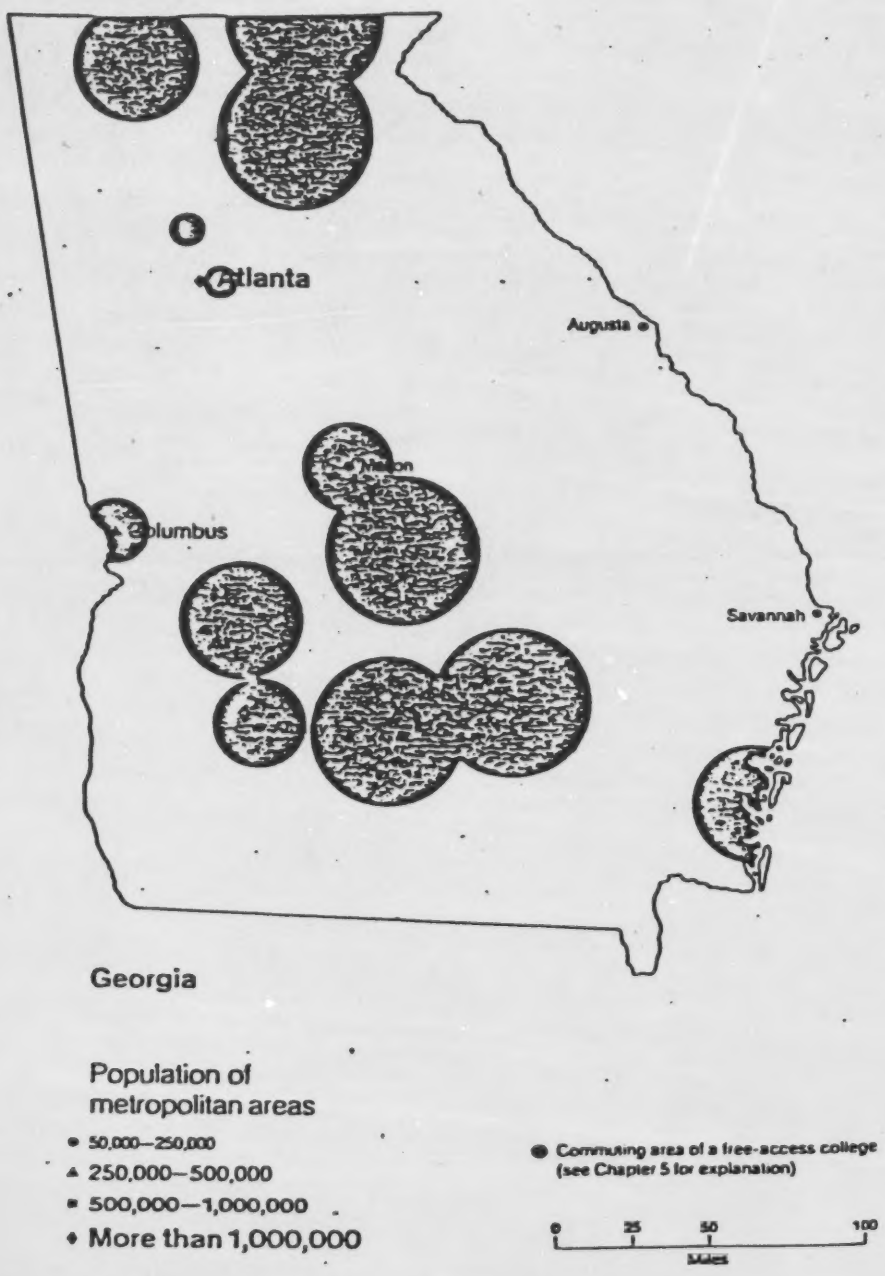
Conclusions

The Commission study makes the following observations on access

Figure A

Commuting Area of Georgia's Free-Access Colleges

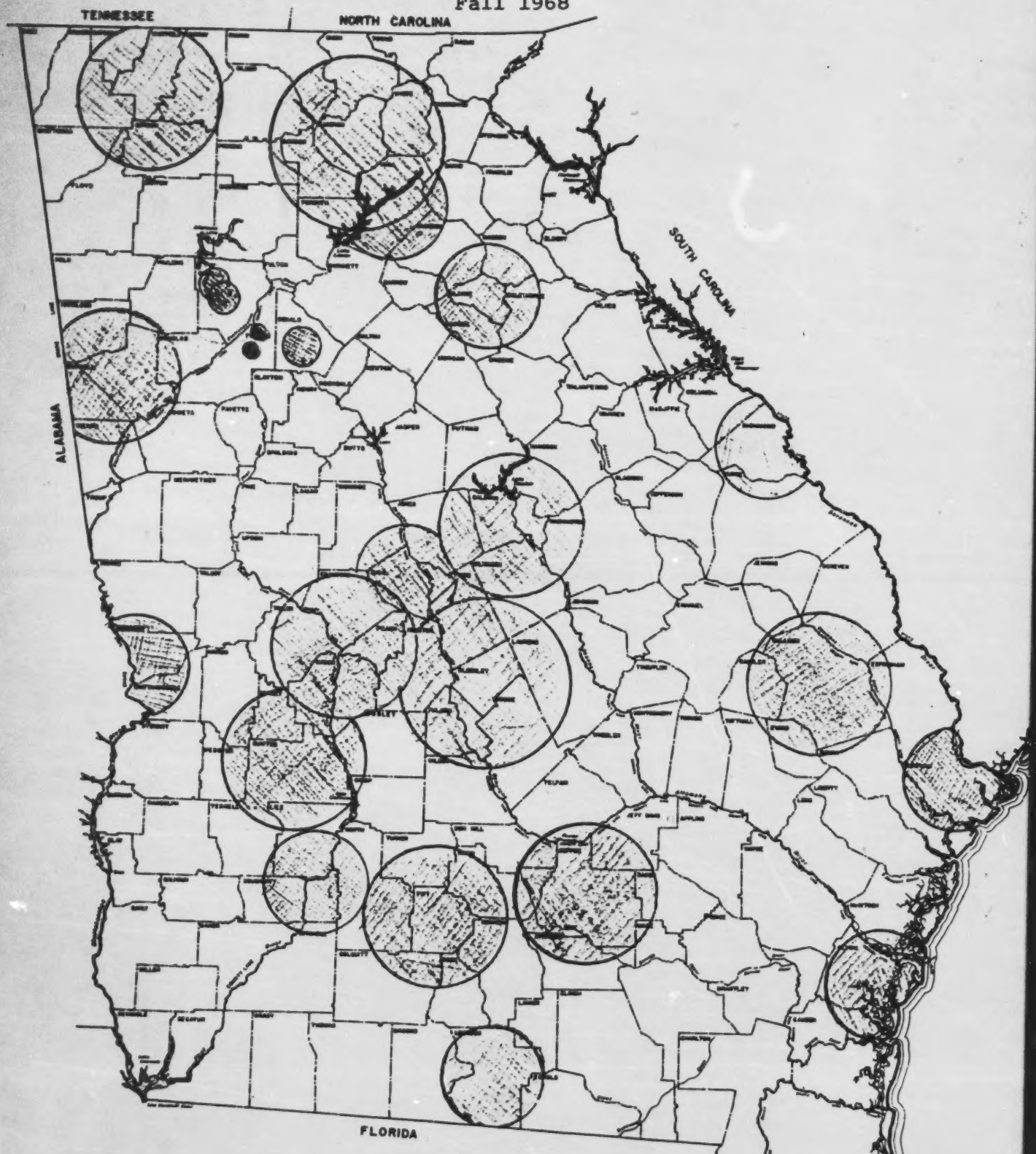
Fall 1968



Source: Free Access to Higher Education, p. 71

Figure B

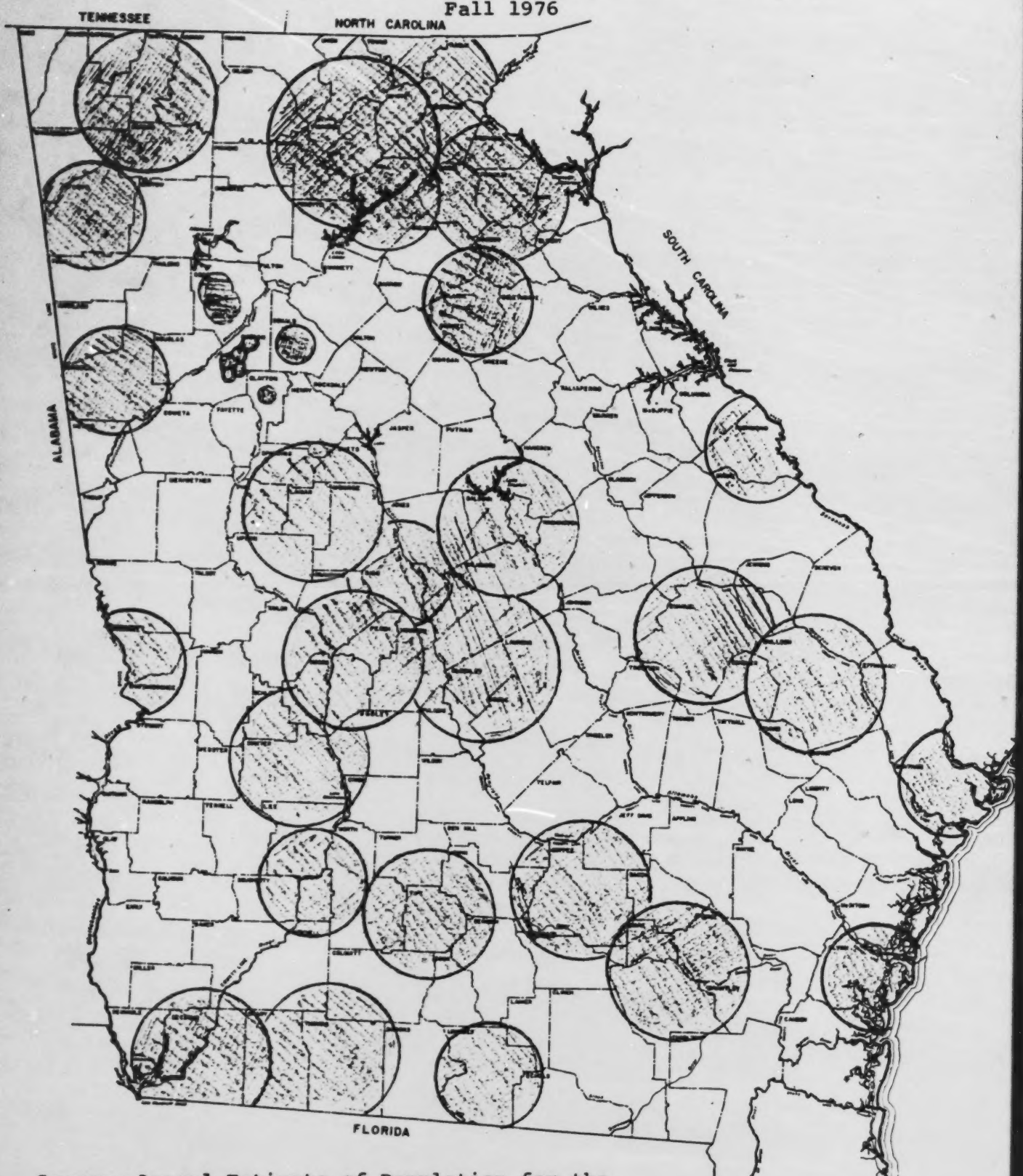
Commuting Area of Georgia's Free-Access Colleges
Fall 1968



Source: Annual Estimate of Population for the State of Georgia 1975. Office of Planning and Budget, 1976.

Figure C

Commuting Area of Georgia's Free-Access Colleges
Fall 1976



Source: Annual Estimate of Population for the State of Georgia 1975. Office of Planning and Budget, 1976.

1. Using tuition and fees data as a criterion, Georgia has achieved greater accessibility of its institutions in 1976 than in 1968. Metropolitan areas of the state, including Atlanta, have free-acess institutions as do suburban and rural areas of the state.

2. Public policy decisions by the Georgia General Assembly have increased the accessibility of public and private undergraduate institutions since 1968.

3. Accessibility cannot be considered the exclusive domain of public institutions. Private institutions in Georgia, especially as a result of Tuition Equalization Grants, are becoming increasingly accessible.

4. Selectivity of institutions is not an appropriate criterion to use in determining accessibility of institutions in the late 1970's. Institutions have been forced to be less selective in their admission policies and are less willing to share with the public sector measures related to selectivity. At best, selectivity is a subjective criterion and is not considered reliable for determining an institution's accessibility.

5. Accessibility is closely related to availibility of enrollment data. Georgia higher education institutions must have enrollment projections related to traditional and to new groups of students who will seek access to Georgia colleges in future years.

6. Decreasing enrollment levels and projections point to a need for making higher education programs accessible to traditional and to emerging groups of students rather than to the need for constructing new campuses and buildings, a goal of the Willingham study.

7. Long-range planning would apparently aid projecting future enrollment levels and program needs in Georgia institutions enrolling freshmen. In addition, monitoring enrollments and programs on an annual basis may be necessary to determine changes and trends in enrollments and programs.

8. There is a need for greater dialogue between elementary and high school educators and higher education planners in Georgia to insure increased accessibility to the State's colleges, and to eradicate barriers to accessibility.

9. Those responsible for planning of higher education or postsecondary in Georgia must take into account the role of the Executive, the Judicial, and the Legislative branches of the Federal Government and their resulting decisions affecting accessibility at the State level.

10. The 1970 national study of access for Georgia higher education in 1968 served a useful purpose in establishing benchmarks for a state study. The earlier methodology, however, is not useful as a means of establishing accessibility in the late 1970's. Changed social conditions, economic factors, and historical aspects of higher education in Georgia require a new

techniques and approaches in determining levels of access and in planning for changed aspects of accessibility.

11. The 1970 study was significant in observing that there is no guarantee that planning for accessibility will (a) increase enrollment, (b) create tye types of programs students want, or (c) improve the quality of programs offered. Planning for accessibility at best serves as a means of creating opportunities and removing barriers.

12. The definition of access used in the earlier study was purposely restrictea and limited. The changed needs of the decade of the 1970's and expected changes in the 1980's suggest a need for an expanded conceptualization of access and a continued redefinition of the term related to those changes.

Chapter 3

ACCESSIBILITY OF COLLEGIATE EDUCATION IN GEORGIA, 1977 AND BEYOND

Georgia faces many new interpretations of accessibility to collegiate education in 1977 and beyond. Access Has taken on new and expanded meanings as new groups seek opportunity for entry into collegiate education, as programs not traditionally a part of collegiate education are included in higher education, and as expanded support of collegiate education is expected to come from public funds.

AN EXPANDED DEFINITION OF ACCESSIBILITY

Access to higher education was defined in a national study as incorporating two criteria, tuition and selectivity, with "at least one-third of the freshmen from the bottom of their high school class and with charges of no more than $400 for tuition and fees."[34] This specific definition of access suggests but does not directly address some of the considerations needed to expand the definition of accessibility in the late 1970's and beyond.

Changing social, political, and economic conditions are bringing demands for access to higher education by groups not previously seeking such access. Political power on the part of these groups has been used to change the concept of access and the definition of higher education.[35]

Legislators, policy makers, and higher education administrators define access somewhere on a continuum of a student's being able to enroll in <u>some</u> kind of institution to a student's being able to enroll in the <u>most selective and prestigious</u> of institutions, regardless of the student's financial position or academic ability.

With the proliferation of public community colleges and the substantial resources of financial aid available to needy students, a growing issue of access is not <u>who</u> goes to college, but who goes to college <u>where</u>?[36] In addition, with the proliferation of Federal legislation insuring the rights of blacks and other minorities, women, older and handicapped citizens to achieve access to higher education, an emerging issue is not <u>who</u> has traditionally enrolled in collegiate education, but <u>which groups</u> will comprise the enrollment of higher education in the future.

Finally, with the continued commitment of the Federal government to guarantee access to higher education, the goal has moved beyond access to some higher education to eventually insuring that every citizen with the desire and the ability shall be able to have 16 years of education. There are some who believe the country is not only moving rapidly toward that goal but actually achieving it.[37]

Against these issues related to a changing concept of access, there remains the strong expectation on the part of many that a college education should address educational purposes and that admissions policies should insure access of only those students who can benefit from the institution's educational program.[38]

During the period of meritocratic access, a standard and accepted route to higher education existed. Costs were paid by the individual or his family. A college preparatory curriculum in high school produced reading, mathematics, and verbal skills needed for students to succeed in college level work. Admissions were selective and admissions decisions unquestioned. Limited numbe attended college during this period of access. College attendance w seen as an earned privilege and not as a right.

As expanded numbers of high school graduates have sought access to higher education in Georgia, an increase in problems on the part of collegiate institutions has occurred. In 1960, 22 percent of the 30,086 students enrolled in the state university system were high school graduates. By 1970, 41 percent of the university system students were high school graduates. By 1976, 44 percent of the 125,269 students enrolled in the state's university system were high school graduates.[39]

This 100 percent increase in the proportion of high school graduates attending public collegiate institutions in Georgia resulted in many students entering higher education who were poorly prepared academically, limited financially, and likely to fail in their academic pursuits without intervention from many sources--economic, educational, political.

Universal access mandated in 1965 has brought with it major problems in previously unquestioned aspects related to access: financing of tuition and fees, admissions testing, high school preparation, basic skills and aptitude for college success, and legal prescriptions regarding student enrollment.

Any definition of access applicable in 1977 and beyond must take into consideration the new groups seeking access to higher education; the barriers to accessibility for these and as-yet-to-be identified groups; the unresolved issues related to access; and alternatives to access. Thus, expanding the definition of access to higher education suggests a need for a broadened conceptualization of access related to changed needs of the 1970's and expected changes of the 1980's.

Against such a background, it is important to consider the mood of collegiate education in the 1960's as one of expansion, while collegiate education in the 1970's operates in a mood of entrenchment. Planning for expansion of collegiate education in the 1960's has given way to planning for survival in the 1970's and beyond.[40]

In the 1960's, American collegiate education was characterized by substantial growth; increasing enrollment; shortage of professors

insufficient facilities; generous appropriations from local, state, and federal governments; healthy financial situations; public confidence; and enrollment of students primarily 18 to 24 years old. These conditions are in marked contrast to those characterising American collegiate education in the 1970's, including no growth or retrenchment; stabilizing or declining enrollments; oversupply of professors; underutilized facilities; cutbacks in staff, research, and special services; costs outstripping sources of income; demand for accountability and public doubt; and enrollment of students of all ages to satisfy desired educational needs.[41]

GROUPS SEEKING ACCESSIBILITY TO HIGHER EDUCATION IN GEORGIA

The history and tradition of expanded access to higher educatio in America has paved the way for evolving groups to seek entry to th highest levels of education available.

In 1977 and beyond in Georgia, many groups which have not previously sought access to higher education are now doing so. Raised levels of awareness, raised hopes and aspirations, raised desire for entry into the upwardly mobile life style which collegiate education has traditionally provided have served as motivation for new groups to seek access to higher education.

Yet, also to be included among those groups seeking access to collegiate education are those students from the group which has historically attended college in great numbers, the traditional college preparatory freshmen.

Traditional College Preparatory Freshmen

Those students identified as traditional college preparatory freshmen, aged 18 to 24, are expected to decrease in numbers in th

South and in Georgia during the next several years.[42] Reasons for this decrease are threefold--decline as a result of the decrease in the number of births during the 1960's as compared to the high birth rates of the post-World War II era;[43] a less favorable job market for many kinds of college graduates;[44] and a view by students 18 to 24 that higher education is possibly a lesser investment yielding fewer rewards than in the past.[45]

Traditional college preparatory freshmen find attendance at collegiate institutions in the state to be accessible. With admissions based totally on academic criteria, students in this group are virtually assured access as a consequence of student preference, relative academic requirements, and tradition.[46]

Between 1975 and 1985, the American Council on Education projects a 12 percent decrease in the absolute numbers of 18-year olds, with an overall difference in number being a loss of 12,296.[47]

Participation of 18-year olds as college freshmen within Georgia in 1975 and 1985 is projected to be 22 percent.[48] The impact of projected population shifts and migration trends of students on enrollment of traditional-age freshmen between 1975 and 1985 is a loss of 2,180 students or an overall loss of 5.8 percent of students.[49]

In Fall, 1976, the University System of Georgia reported a loss of 3 percent in overall enrollment for the previous year whioe experiencing a 5.4 percent increase in minority student enrollment.[50] Current projections reflect the probability that the system will continue to experience enrollment growth, but at a lower rate than in the 1960's, with 140,000 students projected

to enroll by 1982.[51]

A leveling off or a decline in attendance of 18 to 24-year olds in collegiate education provides a need to identify groups who have previously not attended college in large proportions as possible sources to counter decreasing numbers of traditional-age college students.[52]

Black Students Seeking Access to Predominantly White Institutions

Although Georgia is a state with a complex of private black colleges and a major private black university, increasing numbers of black students in the state are seeking access to the state's predominantly white collegiate institutions.

Serving as a stimulus to this movement toward access is the case of Adams v. Califano (Civil Action No. 3095-70, D.D.C. 1977). In that case, the United States District Court of Columbia found that the desegregation plans accepted by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare in 1974 for Georgia s public higher education system "did not meet important desegregation requirements and failed to achieve significant progress toward higher education desegregation."[53]

The Court's 1977 Order arises out of a lawsuit initiated in 1970 to require the Department of HEW to take action to enforce the provisions of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.[54] Guidelines in Adams v. Califano require the University System of Georgia to achieve the following goals:

1. Strengthen traditionally black public institutions while eliminating unnecessary program duplication among black and white institutions.

2. Increase annual and total numbers of blacks enrolled in the state's public higher education institutions so that each year blacks and whites enter the system in equal proportion to the number

of high school graduates of each race.

3. Increase the number of blacks at four-year traditionally white colleges with the aim of reducing the current disparity between black and white enrollment by 50 percent by the 1982-83 academic year.

4. Increase the proportion of blacks who graduate so that their numbers are proportionate to white graduates.

5. Increase the number of whites attending traditionally black schools.

6. Enlarge the number of blacks on faculties, administrative staffs, and governing boards.[55]

Black students in Georgia have traditionally enrolled in five private colleges founded to provide collegiate education for blacks or in three state-supported colleges enrolling a high proportion of black students. Yet, blacks are enrolling in other institutions of the predominantly white university system in increasing numbers.

In the Fall of 1976, 15.5 percent of the university system enrollment was composed of black students. By 1982, the university system projects that black student enrollment will increase to approximately 20 percent of the total system enrollment. This change will represent a 50 percent increase in black enrollment while the total system enrollment increases only 13 percent.[56]

In providing for greater access to collegiate, the university system expects to enroll more poorly prepared students of all races. The system also expects students of all races to enter collegiate education with less preparation at the high school level than is needed to successfully complete college-level work.[57]

Access to collegiate education for blacks has been so considerably broadened in Georgia since 1961 when the first black

students enrolled in the state's white university that academic problems must be considered when expanded access is considered. Black students seeking admission to predominantly white institutions in Georgia are often faced with many special needs related to academic performance. On college admissions tests such as the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) and the American College Testing Program (ACT, black students consistently achieve lower scores than do white students.[58]

Lower test scores for some black students focus attention on the students limited preparation in reading, language development, and mathematical skills and their limited ability to succeed in college-level work. These lower scores also point up a need to strengthen the pre-college education for some minority group members.[59] This preparation would best be strengthened at elementary and secondary levels.

As one way of bringing about court-ordered desegregation, black students are arguing for Open Admissions to all of Georgia's colleges and universities.[60] The University System, however, claims that its institutions are open and accessible to all students with admissions predicated totally on academic criteria and with institutions operating without regard to race.[61]

The University System points out that as a practical consequence of student preference, relative academic requirements, and tradition, there has been an apparent self-segregation evident particularly in Georgia's historically black colleges.[62] The Open Admissions issue, admission of all applicants who have high school diplomas without regard to standardized test scores, is one that seems a moot issue to many.[63] The state system, holding to the expectation that collegiate education will provide educational

programs and services, claims it already is as close to an Open Admissions policy as it can safely by while maintaining academic standards.[64]

Whatever the outcome of these deliberations, many blacks seeking access to predominantly white collegiate institutions in Georgia come to these institutions with special needs. As the number of black students in predominantly white schools increases and as public state-supported institutions become more accessible to blacks, the special financial, educational, social, and psychological needs of black students must be given attention by those in public higher education planning in Georgia.

Other enrollment projections related to blacks in public and in private institutions--whether traditionally black or predominantly white--support the prediction that blacks may be expected to increase their share of total enrollment to levels more in line with their percentage in the total state population.[65]

Non-Traditional Students Over 24

Another group seeking access to collegiate education in the years ahead will be non-traditional students over 24. With the number of 18 to 24-year olds leveling off in Georgia, groups who have previously not attended college in large proportions will be looked to as possible sources to counter the decreasing numbers of traditional students.[66]

Non-traditional students are subject to a wide variety of categorizations and definitions. As used here, the term refers to the age of the student, over 24 during enrollment in collegiate

level education. While there is information on non-traditional students in the aggregate, little is available about how the backgrounds of these students differ among themselves. Particularly missing are data delineating the factors that bear on access to collegiate education and choice of college for these students.[67]

Financing of collegiate education for older students is the object of proposed federal and state legislation in Georgia. The Senior Citizens Higher Education Opportunity Act, HR 3542, would require that all postsecondary schools receiving Federal funds admit senior citizens on a space available basis to any class for which they meet the prerequisites.[68]

Also at the Federal level, the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights is surveying 56 public and private higher education institutions for age discrimination in admissions and student aid. The Commission's findings will be used as the basis for guidelines and regulations for the enforcement of the 1975 Age Discimination Act. The 1975 Act, which goes into effect January of 1979, prohibits age discrimination in federally assisted programs.[69]

At the state level, voters approved a referendum in November, 1976, which amended the Constitution of the state to authorize the Board of Regents to establish a program for Georgians 62 and older to attend certain units of the University system without payment of fees when space is available in a course scheduled for resident credit.[70] The amendment authorized the Board of Regents to adopt rules and regulations not inconsistent with the approved amendment.

At its June 7-8, 1977, meeting, the Georgia Board of Regents established rules and regulations which have, in effect, overturned

the mandate of the voters and virtually excluded Georgians 62 and older from enrolling in resident courses on a space-available tuition-free basis. These rules and regulations include high school graduation and SAT scores.[71] Resident courses include regular and audited courses, for degree and non-degree credit.

Local, state, and federal educational agencies have not incorporated the educational needs of older students in their planning, expect on an adult or continuing education basis. Few educational agencies have assigned data gathering, research, or program responsibilities related to older students' needs and interests along with elementary, secondary, and collegiate level planning for those under 24.

Collegiate institutions advance the cause of veterans in the areas of enrollment, attendance, and fee assistance. A variety of student organizations lobby for the desires of specific student groups. But few are the institutions or student organizations which direct their efforts to actively solicit enrollments from older adults or offer courses specific to their needs.[72]

Increased leisure time, disposable income, and previous educational attainment of the population over 24 in Georgia as the 1980's approach are trends which point to a possible increase in numbers and proportions of older students available to enroll in collegiate education. Another possible factor which might increase participation rates of non-traditional age groups is job upgrading, job obsolescence, and increased competition from job seekers.[73]

Two private institutions in Georgia, Oglethorpe University and Agnes Scott College, have instituted new programs to enroll

older students. Agnes Scott offers financial aid, day classes, free parking, easy access from all parts of Atlanta, and lounge and study facilities on campus in its collegiate program for older women. Oglethorpe offers several flexible full time or parttime baccalaureate degree programs as well as specialized courses and non-degree work.

Women in Non-Traditional Female Areas

Women constitute a rapidly growing segment of collegiate education. In October, 1976, approximately 4.7 million of the nation's 10 million college students under age 35 were women, according to the U.S. Census Bureau. That represents 47 percent of the college-age population and compares with 2.3 million, or 38 percent, in 1966.[74]

While the number of women under age 35 attending college now has doubled in the past decade, women seeking advancement to careers not traditionally open to them will gain access to these opportunities as a direct result of their choice of studies at the collegiate level.

A survey of the 65-member colleges of the Women's College Coalition released in June, 1977, reveals a dramatic shift in the interests of women students toward the sciences and mathematics, directly related to a soaring interest of women in attending medical school.[75]

Cultural forces including the women's movement and the need for more women to work and to upgrade their skills, make it likely that women will continue to increase their share of total enrollment.[76]

Legal forces, including Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 which forbits sex discrimination against students and employees in federally assisted education programs, have helped women find new ways to aspire to access in education and in employment.

Title IX covers virtually all areas of student life: admissions, financial aid, health services, sports, testing, differential rules and regulations. Patterned after Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, Title IX prohibits discrimination in all federally assisted education programs of both students and employees. Title VI covers all federally assisted programs on the basis of race, color, and national origins, but only of students.[77]

Much confusion surrounds the enforcement of the law prohibiting sex discrimination. The lack of clear policy has contributed to a massive backlog of complaints dating back two years when the regulations went into effect in the Office of Civil Rights in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. The result of this lack of clear policy at present is that women do not fully realize their rights under the law and institutions do not fully know their obligations.[78]

Many significant peers and adults are influential in shaping women's choices of collegiate studies and career fields. Counseling programs such as Georgia State University's "Your Next Step" can be significant in assisting adult women gain access to collegiate preparation and career choice in traditional or in non-traditional fields.

Handicapped Students in Collegiate Institutions

The newest group to gain access to collegiate education as a result of Federal laws and regulations are the physically, mentally, and emotionally handicapped. Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 deals with specific aspects related to accessibility of collegiate education--architectural accessibility and program accessibility. It states that no qualified handicapped person in the United States can be excluded from any program or activity

receiving federal funding.[79]

Approximately 200,000 college-aged handicapped students are expected to be enrolled in degree granting institutions of higher education in a year. This represents less than 2 percent of the total enrollment in collegiate education, according to the Department of HEW.[80] Included in this group are some mentally retarded, speech impaired, physically disabled, learning disabled, and emotionally disturbed attendees 18-24 during any given year.[81]

All collegiate programs and services including physical education and athletics, student housing, health services, and methods of determining academic achievement, not handicaps, are a part of this legialation. The HEW regulation is only the first of the Section 504 implementations. As lead agency, HEW is preparing guidelines for all other federal agencies and departments which, in turn, must develop regulations for enforcing Section 504.

The result will be a government-wide coordination producing massive changes in Federally funded programs and activities. Housing, transportation, veterans affairs, defense programs, law-enforcement efforts, and social service programs will be affected. In addition, all state and local programs funded by the federal government will enforce 504 legislation under the new general revenue-sharing act.[82]

BARRIERS TO ACCESSIBILITY

With a widely diverse enrollment seeking access to collegiate education in Georgia, there remain barriers to entry or successful completion of the baccalaureate degree which are somewher traditional in nature. These barriers could be categorized as financial; academic and attitudinal; institutional; and geographic.

Financial Needs of Students

No other barrier to access to collegiate education assumes the importance which the financial barrier assumes. In the last several years, the national policy debate on the public role in supporting collegiate education has focused on two issues--the objectives of individual access to higher education and individual choice among various institutions of higher education.[83] These objectives are in agreement with the movement of American higher education from elitist to egalitarian. Attention paid in the past to building new facilities is increasingly being given instead to assuring access to existing plants and programs to all students, especially those in financial need.

Public policies adopted in response to the concern for increasing individual access to and choice among institutions have included direct grants, loans with or without subsidized interest rates, work opportunities, and low tuition.

Chapter One of this report traces the history of finaicial aid at the federal level beginning in 1944 with the Serviceman's Readjustment Act. This chapter will not repeat that historical treatment.

In should be sufficient to report that the cost of financial aid is held to be a responsibility performed by a partnership among the Federal and state governments, the institutions, and private agencies. All of these partners have a stake in the educational development of the society and a responsibility to students. In addition, states are constitutionally responsible for the education of their citizens, although the federal government has assumed a strong role in shaping aspects related to accessibility.

In operation in 1977 and beyond are financial aid programs which provide a combination of grants or scholarships, loans, and work-study or employment awards for needy students. With the passage of the Educational Amendments of 1972, which made major revisions in the Higher Education Act of 1965, new federal programs were added to old ones, including:

1. Basic Education Opportunity Grants (BEOG), created to insure that eligible college students would at least have a basic sum of money to attend college.
2. Supplemental Education Opportunity Grants Program (SEOG), created to succeed the Educational Opportunity Grant Program for needy students who required assistance, especially to attend particularly expensive institutions.
3. State Student Incentive Grant Program (SSIG), to match funds appropriated by the states for their own scholarship programs, especially to assist students in attending the college of their choice.
4. Student Loan Marketing Association (SLMA), a government-sponsored, privately run corporation to increase the number of student loans.[84]

In an appraisal of the relative effect of financial aid in increasing access to collegiate education, the following summary, prepared for a conference on "Equality of Access in Postsecondary Education," sponsored by the Southern Education Foundation and the Ford Foundation, gives some indication of the impact of current student aid programs:

1. Black students and black colleges benefit significantly under the Supplemental Education Opportunity Grant and the National Defense Student Loan programs in every state. Although more financial aid is available to nearly everyone, black students and black colleges receive more than their share of aid dollars under SEOG, CWSP, and NDSL programs. Their is also indication that blacks are significantly benefiting from Basic Education Opportunity Grants.
2. Of the three types of aid--grants or scholarships, loans, and work-study or employment awards--the grant awards have by far the most significant impact on increasing access to collegiate education. Students prefer employment next and as a last resort loans.
3. Loan programs made a difference in the educational plans of middle income and more affluent students. They help to expand a student's freedom of <u>choice</u> in educational types of institution. When state and federal aid programs emphasize loan programs, students can be forced to incur very large amounts of total indebtedness for their undergraduate careers.[85]

In assessing the impact of Federal student aid programs on access and trends in ability to pay for college, the American Council on Education in its January, 1977, report <u>Financing Higher Education: Basic Facts Underlying Current Issues</u>, made the following conclusions:

COLLEGE-GOING RATES BY PARENTAL INCOME LEVEL:

1. Between the years 1972-73 and 1974-75, among lower-income groups (under $10,000,) college-going rates are lower for whites than for blacks. Over the three years, rates for

low-income whites have continued to decline from the peak reached in the late 1960's while rates for low-income blacks have gone up.

2. The biggest gap between white and black college-going rates is at the middle-income level. Middle-income ($10,000-$14,999) blacks have college-going rates that are substantially lower than those of blacks in the $5,000-$9,999 group and just about equal to those of blacks from the very lowest income (under $5,000) group.
3. Over the three academic years, the college-going rates of lower-income whites declined much more than those of higher-income whites, while the rates for lower-income blacks went up. Thus, at present, inequality in college-going rates across income levels is much greater among whites than among blacks.

ABILITY TO PAY FOR HIGHER EDUCATION--
INFLATION AND TAXES

1. Within each sector of higher education, it appears that thos families who do not get offsetting financial aid are paying an increasing proportion of their income for their children's college education.
2. Inflation erodes the purchasing power of the dollar while it raises money income into progressively higher income tax brackets, leaving less real disposable income, after inflati and taxes are taken into account, for investment in a colle education.

3. An increasing number of middle-income families got into higher income brackets by having more than one family member in the labor force. In 51 percent of the husband-wife families with incomes of $15,000 to $25,000 in 1974, both worked. The two-earner family may pay as much as $965 (soon to be $3,000) in employment taxes than the one-earner family even though the income is equal. The added employment taxes could substantially reduce the discretionary income available for investment in a college education.

SIBLING SQUEEZE

1. Comparisons of trends in median family income with trends in college tuitions overlook important demographic factors that may affect a family's ability to pay for college. Between 1974 and 1981, the average overlap per college-age (18-21) child will rise 2.8 years before declining to a level of under 2 years by 1985. This means that the proportion of parents who have to help finance not one, but two or even three college educations over a very short time period is now at peak levels.

IMPACT OF INSTITUTIONALLY FUNDED STUDENT AID

1. Income redistribution is generally regarded as a broad social concern, reaching far beyond the education sector. If it is not financed by broadly based sources of revenue, a disproportionate burden of financing other students falls on middle and upper-income families whose own children are currently in college.

2. The recent decline in college-going rates have been sharpest among middle-income families. This may be partly attributable to the additional financial burden which results from this form of income redistribution.[86]

In Georgia, specific programs supported and administered by the state supplement the federal programs of student financial aid. These include the Tuition Equalization Grant of $500 as of Fall, 1977, to Georgia residents attending private institutions in the state; the Georgia Student Incentive Scholarship; the Guaranteed Student Loan Program; and categorical aid programs of the Regents Scholarship, Medical Scholarship, and Law Enforcement Personnel Scholarship.

Academic and Attitudinal Barriers

Collegiate institutions in Georgia receive and maintain accreditation of their programs from the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools. Standard Three of the SACS accreditation outline directs institutions of higher education, including collegiate institutions, to relate admissions policies to the educational purposes of the institution and to establish qualitative and quantitative standards and criteria necessary to insure admission of students who can benefit from the educational program.[87]

So long as collegiate institutions have as their major purpose the educational development of students, those seeking access will at some point or another need to demonstrate academic ability and competence. Mandated access as in Adams v. Califano has as its goal increasing the proportion of black students in predominantly white institutions. Mandated access will in some cases delay the need for

students to demonstrate academic ability until the admissions process has been completed and students are enrolled in classes.

There is mounting evidence that students complete elementary and secondary levels of education without acquiring the academic and attitudinal skills necessary to succeed in collegiate education. Many adults in the United States are increasingly disappointed with the quality of education in the public schools, with a sharp decline taking place between 1974 and 1977.[88] There are many reasons for this disappointment. One is increased cost and reduced results in terms of student performance.[89] In 1976, elementary and secondary education in the country cost taxpayers $84 billion,[90] more than five times the 1960 figure and $7 billion less than the 1977-78 estimate.

Concurrently, scores on academic and achievement tests reveal that student academic ability declined sharply since 1963. National average test scores on the Scholastic Aptitude Test have dropped 49 points on the verbal section--from 478 in 1963 to 429 in 1977--and 32 points in the math section--from 502 to 470.[91] In the South, an even greater decline took place. In 1973, the average SAT score in the South was 426, compared to a national average of 444, while the mathematical average for the South was 455 compared to 480 for the nation. By 1975, the South had dropped to a verbal average of 413 compared to a 431 average for the country and to a 445 mathematics average compared to 472 for the country.[92]

There are those who question the use of achievement scores to determine access of students to collegiate institutions. Especially at issue is the aspect of cultural bias built into standardized testing methodology.[93] Testing officials reject the charge that

bias exists in the tests, pointing to the fact that the tests are no less accurate in forecasting college success for minority students than for white students.[94] They say instead that bias exists in the way collegiate institutions use achievement scores to determine access.

College Entrance Examination Board administers the use of the SAT. The Board points out that the SAT is not designed to measure school performance or student capacity to function well or creatively in society. The test is instead a measure of developed verbal and mathematical reasoning and abilities. As such, the SAT is a measure of those abilities most commonly needed for academic performance in colleges and universities. The measured performance of a student on the SAT is a useful and well-validated indication of how they might perform in one college or another.[95]

Within public and educational communities, there is a growing commitment to establish standards which students must meet in order to be promoted or to be graduated. More than 11 state legislatures and 16 state boards of education have approved of some form of competency testing of students for promotion or for high school graduation.[96] In Atlanta and in the state of Georgia, the process of setting minimum standards for student promotions and graduation is being studied.[97]

Mandated universal access to collegiate education is not compatible with mandated minimum standards and competencies for graduation from high school. Until such time as these disparate concepts become complementary, the University System will continue to rely

on its Special Studies program to bring students with limited academic abilities to higher levels of academic performance.

The cybernetic relationship of elementary and secondary education to collegiate education is an important relationship to keep in mind in examining barriers to higher education. Few if any of the citizens of Georgia can escape a connection with students of the state's schools at some point.

Institutional Barriers

Between 1975 and 1977, Georgia ranked 14th among the states in percent of increase in appropriations for higher education, up an average of approximately 26 percent.[98] Yet with this increase in appropriations, there still remain institutional barriers which must be considered as limiting access to collegiate education.

Public and Institutional Policy

Determination regarding access is made at two levels of public policy--the federal and the state. Both impact on the freedom of public and private institutions to address the issue of accessibility.

Since 1965 when the federal government mandated universal access to higher education, one of its major responsibilities has been to address the goal of access/equality of opportunity. The Basic Education Opportunity Grant program is the primary federal mechanism for providing access to low-income students. The federal purpose has been to encourage greater balance in differing state policies of access, to bring about redress where redress is an obvious necessity, and to create incentives for states to do things

states might not otherwise do to insure access to collegiate education.[99]

It is commonly held that the state is the repository of the primary responsibility for higher education. But the state has little power to act counter to federal government mandates regarding accessibility of higher education. In complement to the federal government, the state has the role of providing both access and a reasonable choice to students, especially to those students who do not qualify for federal grants. To students from middle-income families, state loans may make the difference between access and non-access as well as allowing a reasonable choice.[100]

Within the state, many have influence on decisions relating to access of higher education. These include the Governor, state legislators, the University System Board of Regents, public and private institutional decision makers, state planning agencies and coordinators, 1202 Commission members, local decision makers, and the general public. Their decisions related to access include some of the following: tuition and fee levels for residents and out-of-state students; numbers of students admitted; growth trends pursued, especially new program and facilities; characteristics of students enrolled; academic goals determined; and remedial programs instituted.

Public policies concerning access are made through the political process. Collegiate education is a participant in the process. Those involved in the planning of higher education must be aware of the interrelated and at time of the covert events which influence policy makers, especially in relation to establishing policies of

access to collegiate education.

Admissions and Course-Credit Policies

Admissions and course-credit policies are areas where many decisions relating to access are made. Students in the age range of 18 to 24 and students who are completing the traditional high school curriculum gain access to a collegiate institution by a combination of high school rank and achievement testing, among other criteria.

Those who are older than 24 and who have not completed the traditional high school curriculum may find access limited unless an institution offers alternative admissions and credentialing procedures.

These alternatives generally relate to two areas--testing and course prerequisites. Several tests now on the market offer alternatives to non-traditional students seeking access to collegiate institutions. New types of tests, if developed, will augment the traditional use of tests for selection purposes.

Among the tests already on the market is the College-Level Examination Program (CLEP). A testing service offered since 1965 by the College Entrance Examination Board, CLEP is designed to validate the learning acquired by adults who lack a systematic way of attending college-level classes. The test was designed to enable those who have done college-level work outside the classroom--through correspondence study, television courses, on-the-job training, or any other means--to demonstrate their achievement and to use the test for college credit or placement.

CLEP also has potential value for the college transfer and for employers, professional licensing agencies, and other groups willing to recognize college equivalence on the basis of competence demonstrated through examinations.[101]

Another test which is on the market is the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS), a test which measures the intelligence of adults compared to their age peers and compared to those who are at the peak of their mental development.[102] This test, easily administered and quickly scored, is perhaps the standardized test which best relates to the normal learning curve of adults. Its use has previously been related to clinical settings but could be applied to collegiate admissions testing for non-traditional students.

Prerequisites not taken in high school may also serve to limit access to collegiate institutions. CLEP is one means of granting academic credit at the collegiate level for off-campus learning relating to prerequisites not taken in high school.

Another means of receiving academic credit for off-campus learning in life and work experience is The Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning Program (CAEL). This program is one of the major current errorts to bring order into the practice of granting credit for learning from experience.[103]

A third method of receiving academic credit is through special degree programs such as external degree programs which make use of various forms of academic credit for off-campus learning.

These three methods and others like them place emphasis on learner-centered methods of evaluation which permit institutions to be responsive to new types of students who seek access to collegiate institutions. The granting of academic credit for learning off-campus is viewed by some as a socially justified method and a logical extension of the universal access goal.[104]

Barriers to access at collegiate levels do exist in the areas of admissions testing and course credentials. Several unresolved issues relate to the continued existence of these barriers as legidimate means of carrying out the educational mission of collegiate institutions.

At issue is whether learning from any source can be measured and equated to learning in a traditional classroom. Also at issue is whether a degree represents the accumulation of units signifying discrete elements of knowledge or whether it signifies a coherent configuration, a pattern with meaning and substance which goes far beyond mathematical accumulation of credit.[105] Finally at issue is whether any standards relating to admissions and credits should remain in view of the overarching power of mandated universal access.

Transfer Policies

Access to collegiate education is limited by transfer policies of three types--transfer credit between institutions; transfer policies from lower to upper level institutions; and transfer limitations to out-of-state public institutions.

Policies relating to admissions; evaluation of transfer courses; curriculum planning; advising, counseling, and other student personnel services; and articulation programs are part of an institution's attempt to assist students in a successful transfer. Transfer problems stimulate the need for planning within the state which will lead to the establishment or improvement of procedures for resolving these problems.[106]

In developing its Core Program, the University System of Georgia has the objective of greatly facilitating the transfer of credits

earned under college transfer associate programs at junior colleges within the system to baccalaureate degree programs at senior colleges and universities in the system. The curriculum establishes basic programs of a minimum of 90 quarter hours of credit, constituting the freshman and sophomore years of work.[107]

Problems relating to access of non-resident students are acknowledged by state and by students alike. For the state, the problem is one of protecting itself against student newcomers who exploit but may never support their colleges and universities. To mobile would-be students, the problem is one of deferring travel or study or of overcoming cost and admissions barriers which discriminate against nonresidents and newcomers. Many private colleges too face a nonresident student problem, for the enrollment of these institutions is cut as states increasingly provide scholarships available for use in non-public--but only instate--institutions.[108] The Tuition Equalization Grant in Georgia assists private Georgia colleges and their resident students but not private colleges or Georgia residents attending them outside the state.

Limited Hours of Operation

Althouth difficult to document, there seems agreement that another barrier to access is limited hours of institutional operation. By offering only daytime programs, institutions exclude those students who work in the day and can only attend evening classes. By offering only evening and weekend classes, institutions create barriers for students with home or family responsibilities requiring their presence in the evening. Those involved in

institutional planning at the collegiate level have a responsibility to determine the student groups best served by more flexible hours of institutional operation.

Geographic Barriers

Several aspects related to geographic barriers of access have previously been introduced, including proximity of collegiate institutions and commuting students and non-resident tuition expenses for transfer students.

An additional aspect related to geographic barriers is the limitation of first-hand knowledge of an institution for students unable to travel great or even short distances to visit the campus. Much information needed for making a choice about seeking access to collegiate education is not provided to students by institutions or is incomplete and lacking in specificity and detail. Much information never reaches students, or reaches them at the wrong time, or in the wrong form, thus misrepresenting the program and possibly the college.[109]

Numerous guidebooks for prospective college students have been published which give a variety of information about collegiate education. A number of computerized information systems have been developed and marketed to assist students in narrowing down institutional choices. But much evidence exists to suggest that needed institutional information is lacking for many groups of students to make sound choices.[110] The National Task Force on Better Information for Student Choice identifies seven major characteristics of better information:

1. The information is VALUED;

2. The information is APPLICABLE to choice of concern;
3. The information is PRACTICAL.
4. The information is UNDERSTANDABLE;
5. The information is ACCURATE;
6. The information is TIMELY;
7. The information is COMPARABLE ACROSS INSTITUTIONAL AND PROGRAM LINES.

It is important to note that all seven characteristics are vital. If any one is missing, the student probably does not get "better information" from the institution.[111]

ALTERNATIVES IN PROVIDING ACCESS TO GEORGIA'S COLLEGIATE INSTITUTIONS

With declining birth rates and a reduced pool from which to anticipate students seeking access to collegiate education in Georgia, there is a corresponding reduction in need for new collegiate campuses or buildings. What seems needed instead are alternatives to the construction of new facilities as institutions consider the mandate of universal access.

There are many possibilities to consider in structuring alternatives to traditional college courses in a collegiate setting. These non-traditional routes to a collegiate degree can be classified as follows:

1. Advanced standing: credit awarded toward a degree for prior learning from a combination of transfer credits from previous college course work, life experiences, CLEP/CPEP (see next page), and other college-level experiences and examinations.

2. Challenge examination: a means of earning credit for a specific course through an examination given by a college in lieu of taking the course.
3. CLEP (College-Level Examination Program): a group of tests for general knowledge in 47 specific subject areas equivalent to introductory courses and accepted as credit by many colleges in lieu of taking courses. Examinations are offered frequently in community locations.
4. Contract learning: a faculty-guided independent plan of study which specifies what is to be studied, the resources to be used, what the student will do to produce, how much credit will be granted for successful completion of the work, and the criteria for evaluating the work.
5. Consortium arrangement: cooperative offerings of complementary institutions in the sharing of facilities, resources, and activities. Chief areas of cooperation are in library services, visiting scholars, departmental conferences, and faculty research. Opportunities available for students to take courses at other institutions within the Consortium are offered.
6. Cooperative education: a work-study program for college credit involving periods of study on campus and related, supervised off-campus work.

7. CPEP (College Proficiency Examination Program): a program in some states where a group of tests for knowledge equivalent to the content of some 28 specific college courses are accepted as credit by many colleges in lieu of taking courses. Examinations are offered frequently in community locations--high schools and libraries, for example.
8. Correspondence course: a course for college credit taken by arrangement with the institution granting credit. The work is completed at the student's home on his own time and returned by mail to the institution for evaluation by a faculty member and return to the student.
9. External degree: various forms of academic credit for off-campus learning.
10. Independent study: a program in which the student carries out learning activities outside of the classroom under the direction of a faculty member of the collegiate institution.
11. Internship: work-experience in the community closely related to the academic study of the student in the collegiate institution. Credit is awarded for the internship with varying degrees of structure and evaluation by a faculty member.

12. Life experience: refers to college-level learning derived from sources outside of a traditional classroom setting and awarded credit; i.e., work, independent reading and study, travel, community activities, and other learning experiences.
13. University Without Walls: a program of awarding credit to student for college-level learning derived from sources outside of the traditional classroom setting. A designation by the federal government with financial support awarded for setting up and maintaining the program within a larger collegiate setting.
14. Weekend college: refers to programs offered in collegiate institutions or programs sponsored by them on Fridays, Saturdays, and Sundays.[112]

Many if not all of these non-traditional routes to a collegiage degree are presently available in Georgia's public and private colleges and universities. The University of Georgia, for example, enrolls 2,000 students a year in its off-campus Independent Study Program.[113] A University Center Consortium in Atlanta offers the shared facilities and programs of 14 Atlanta-area institutions including the Atlanta School of Art, the Atlanta University Center, Columbia Theological Seminary, Emory University, the Georgia Institute of Technology, Georgia State University, the University of Georgia in Athens, and Oglethorpe University.[114]

Two significant aspects related to these alternatives are important to consider. The first relates to services for those students enrolled in these non-traditional degree programs. These services range from counseling and academic needs to services related to child-care, information, recreation, transportation, and study space on and off-campus.[115] Delivery of these services is an important aspect of a student's success in non-traditional degree work at the collegiate level.

A second consideration relates to monitoring of these programs and services to insure that non-traditional degree programs meet minimum standards in awarding credit. The Council of Graduate Studies in the United States has recently requested regional accrediting associations to adopt specific standards for external degree study and for nonresidential courses. Specifically, the Council has asked that accrediting bodies insure that these courses are in all respects--students, staff, and resources--comparable to programs offered on the main campus.[116]

Without a commitment to insuring minimum standards in these non-traditional degree program offerings, access may be achieved, but access to <u>what</u> in terms of the equivalent to the content and quality of traditional on-campus degree programs?

Chapter 5
UNRESOLVED ISSUES RELATING TO ACCESSIBILITY OF COLLEGIATE EDUCATION IN GEORGIA

Collegiate education in Georgia is faced with many uncertainties in the remaining years of this century. Many problems threaten the

stability of these institutions as technology and rapid change encroach on the traditional mission of higher education. Additional challenges come from students seeking access to collegiate institutions--including the increasing diversity of individual needs and desires for upward mobility; emerging needs of an adult learning society; and changing work conditions with an increase in leisure time and time for individual development.[117]

In summary, the issue of access is a complicated one. It involves discussing whether reasonable access to postsecondary education is a right or a privilege, whether opportunity for education should be a function of geographic location, sex, age, race, physical condition or whether equality of access is positively correlated with equality in acquisition of social benefits.[118]

Expanding access includes making opportunities available to more kinds of people than have traditionally enrolled in collegiate education. Expanding access also includes determing more types of collegiate education services to offer to greater numbers of people than were served in the past.[119]

Providing services in a form that can be successfully utilized by collegiate students or those applying to become collegiate students is perhaps the ultimate test of access. If services cannot be successfully utilized, then availability alone may not satisfy the criterion of access.

In its elitist period, collegiate education represented excellence in academic and social areas which have been greatly changed by mandated universal access. Ironically, it was the very

character of elitist collegiate education which universal access sought to expand and make available to the masses. By changing the process of admissions and the composition of the collegiate student body under mandated universal access, the architects of such change have insured access. But the access is to something very different from what was sought. Access to the excellence of elitist education has given way to access to an education which has made a promise to be all things to all people.

As U.S. Commissioner of Education Ernest Boyer has pointed out, "We have gone through a period of overpromising. We felt education was the answer to every dilemma we faced. More recently, we seem to have expected too little from our schools. I applaud a new commitment to excellence in education, to search for ways to improve schools without flash-in-the-pan innovations."[120]

As a theme for the Carter Administration's as yet undefined education policy, the Commissioner has suggested "Access to Excellence."[121]

Insistence on excellence in education is encouraging, but it serves to point up some of the unresolved issues which relate to accessibility of collegiate education in Georgia. These include the following:

1. Which groups will comprise the enrollment of collegiate education in the future? For what purpose? At whose expense? For how long?

2. How will mandated universal access change the purpose of collegiate education in Georgia in the future?
3. Should any standards relating to admissions and credits remain in view of mandated universal access?
4. How can collegiate institutions meet accreditation standards of their educational programs while also being responsive to the demands of mandated universal access?
5. Should new standards be adopted in view of the conflict between educational excellence and mandated universal access?
6. Who controls access to collegiate education in Georgia and for what purposes? How representative of the taxpaying public who support collegiate education are these groups?
7. There remain barriers to collegiate education in Georgia. Do any of these barriers serve to maintain an appropriate role of educational excellence in collegiate education? Should any of these barriers remain? Or should all be mandated out of existence?
8. Is student-centered support the best or the only way to provide access and successful academic performance of students, especially low income and non-traditional students? What are other alternatives?

9. What tax relief will be made available at the federal and state levels for middle and upper income parents of students who do not qualify for tuition grants or loans?
10. Is income redistribution a socially just prerogative of the federal government in a democracy, even if it occurs under the guise of providing access/equality of educational opportunity?
11. What role will education vouchers play in accessibility of collegiate education?
12. What social pressures operate to support access to collegiate education rather than to vocational-technical education?
13. What ethical considerations operate to avoid financial gain on the part of institutions which enroll large numbers of students under mandated universal access?
14. What problems exist in relating collegiate education to career and labor market opportunities outside the educational institution?

AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In addition to the unresolved issues related to accessibility being important topics for further research, there are two further studies which suggest themselves for further research:

1. Study of accessibility of Georgia institutions which enroll graduate and professional students;
2. Study of accessibility of Georgia vocational-technical institutions which enroll students.

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